

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
FOR THE
UNITED STATES COMMISSION TO THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900

MONOGRAPHS ON EDUCATION
IN THE
UNITED STATES

EDITED BY
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER
Professor of Philosophy and Education in Columbia University, New York

8

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

BY
B. A. HINSDALE
Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan

THIS MONOGRAPH IS CONTRIBUTED TO THE UNITED STATES EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT BY THE
STATE OF NEW YORK

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
FOR THE
UNITED STATES COMMISSION TO THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900

Director
HOWARD J. ROGERS, Albany, N. Y.

MONOGRAPHS
ON
EDUCATION IN THE UNITED STATES

EDITED BY
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER

Professor of Philosophy and Education in Columbia University, New York

- 1 EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION — ANDREW SLOAN DRAPER, *President of the University of Illinois, Champaign, Illinois*
- 2 KINDERGARTEN EDUCATION — SUSAN E. BLOW, *Cazenovia, New York*
- 3 ELEMENTARY EDUCATION — WILLIAM T. HARRIS, *United States Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.*
- 4 SECONDARY EDUCATION — ELMER ELLSWORTH BROWN, *Professor of Education in the University of California, Berkeley, California*
- 5 THE AMERICAN COLLEGE — ANDREW FLEMING WEST, *Professor of Latin in Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey*
- 6 THE AMERICAN UNIVERSITY — EDWARD DELAVAN PERRY, *Jay Professor of Greek in Columbia University, New York*
- 7 EDUCATION OF WOMEN — M. CAREY THOMAS, *President of Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania*
- 8 TRAINING OF TEACHERS — B. A. HINSDALE, *Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan*
- 9 SCHOOL ARCHITECTURE AND HYGIENE — GILBERT B. MORRISON, *Principal of the Manual Training High School, Kansas City, Missouri*
- 10 PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION — JAMES RUSSELL PARSONS, *Director of the College and High School Departments, University of the State of New York, Albany, New York*
- 11 SCIENTIFIC, TECHNICAL AND ENGINEERING EDUCATION — T. C. MENDENHALL, *President of the Technological Institute, Worcester, Massachusetts*
- 12 AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION — CHARLES W. DABNEY, *President of the University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tennessee*
- 13 COMMERCIAL EDUCATION — EDMUND J. JAMES, *Professor of Public Administration in the University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois*
- 14 ART AND INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION — ISAAC EDWARDS CLARKE, *Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C.*
- 15 EDUCATION OF DEFECTIVES — EDWARD ELLIS ALLEN, *Principal of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, Overbrook, Pennsylvania*
- 16 SUMMER SCHOOLS AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION — HERBERT B. ADAMS, *Professor of American and Institutional History in the Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Maryland*
- 17 SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES AND ASSOCIATIONS — JAMES MCKEEN CATTELL, *Professor of Psychology in Columbia University, New York*
- 18 EDUCATION OF THE NEGRO — BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, *Principal of the Tuskegee Institute, Tuskegee, Alabama*
- 19 EDUCATION OF THE INDIAN — WILLIAM N. HAILMANN, *Superintendent of Schools, Dayton, Ohio*

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
FOR THE
UNITED STATES COMMISSION TO THE PARIS EXPOSITION OF 1900

MONOGRAPHS ON EDUCATION
IN THE
UNITED STATES

EDITED BY
NICHOLAS MURRAY BUTLER
Professor of Philosophy and Education in Columbia University, New York

8

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

BY
B. A. HINSDALE
Professor of the Science and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan

THIS MONOGRAPH IS CONTRIBUTED TO THE UNITED STATES EDUCATIONAL EXHIBIT BY THE
STATE OF NEW YORK

1, P 1715
H 5

COPYRIGHT BY
J. B. LYON COMPANY

24

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The agencies of an institutional character for training teachers in the United States are the following: Normal schools and colleges, teachers' training classes, teachers' institutes, summer schools, university extension lectures, teachers' reading circles, chairs of education in colleges and universities, and teachers' colleges. None of these agencies go far back in our history; all of them, on the contrary, sprang directly or indirectly out of the educational revival that began to show marked power in the most progressive countries early in the present century. We shall understand the origin and development of these agencies the better if we first glance at the preparation of teachers in the period preceding this revival.

The first thing to be considered is the fact that the training of teachers, as the phrase is now understood, had previously been wholly neglected throughout the country. Teachers had no other preparation for their work than their natural aptitude for the art, their knowledge of the subjects which they taught, and such practical lessons as they learned in their school rooms. As respects their academic preparation, they presented, as a class, a very motley appearance, as a cursory view of the schools of the country will abundantly show.

New England was much better supplied with schools of all kinds than any other section of the country. Here were found four of the nine colleges that existed at the time of the revolutionary war; here permanent grammar schools and academies existed in larger numbers than elsewhere; and here were the only systems of public schools that had been founded. The teacher was always highly respected by the Puritans; but some of the accounts of teachers and

schools that have come down to us bear a striking resemblance to the descriptions of the state of education existing in Switzerland and France in the youth of Pestalozzi. In the early time we read of one town, for example, that required its schoolmaster to perform the following duties in addition to taking charge of the school: to act as court messenger, to serve summonses, to conduct certain ceremonial services of the church, to lead the Sunday choir, to ring the bell for public worship, to dig graves, and to perform other occasional duties.¹ Matters improved as time went on, but Horace Mann wrote of Massachusetts as late as 1837: "Engaged in the common schools of the state there are now, out of the city of Boston, but a few more than a hundred male teachers who devote themselves to teaching as a regular profession. The number of females is a little, though not materially, larger. Very few even of these have ever had any special training for their vocation. The rest are generally young persons, taken from agricultural or mechanical employment, which have no tendency to qualify them for the difficult station; or they are undergraduates of our colleges, some of whom, there is reason to suspect, think more of what they are to receive at the end of the stipulated term, than what they are to impart during its continuance."² The winter schools were taught by men, the summer schools by women, the men being much the better fitted for the office of instruction.

In the middle states education had never taken on a strong institutional form. The four colleges of that section—Philadelphia, New Jersey, Queen's and King's—were much younger and weaker than Harvard and Yale; academies and grammar schools were less firmly established than east of the Hudson river, while common schools were wholly of a voluntary or parochial character. Private schools and domestic instruction were mainly relied on. The old Dutch schoolmasters of the Hudson and the Delaware performed

¹ Boone, R. G. *Education in the United States*, p. 12.

² *Life and Works of Horace Mann*, vol. II, p. 425.

quite as many offices as ever the New England schoolmasters performed. They were forereaders and foresingers in the churches, comforters of the sick, and church clerks, not to mention other services, as well as pedagogues.¹ President Dwight, of Yale college, visiting the city of New York early in this century, gives this account of the majority of the schools that he found there: "An individual, sometimes a liberally educated student, having obtained the proper recommendations, offers himself to some of the inhabitants as a schoolmaster. If he is approved and procures a competent number of subscribers, he hires a room and commences the business of instruction. Sometimes he meets with little, and sometimes with much encouragement."² And so it was, for the most part, throughout the middle states.

At the south schools were still less firmly rooted. Here was found, before the revolutionary war, but a single college, William and Mary, and academies of a permanent character were infrequent. In the later colonial days, and perhaps afterwards, it was common for southern gentlemen to send abroad for university educated men, who were duly installed as teachers in their families. Thus George Mason, the distinguished Virginia statesman of the revolutionary era, sent to Scotland for two teachers in succession for his sons.³ At an earlier time it was still more common in the southern states for heads of families to buy teachers in the market as the Romans bought them in the days of Cicero; such teachers being commonly redemptioners, men who had sold their services for a term of years to a merchant or shipmaster in payment for their transportation to America, but sometimes, also, convicts who had been expatriated. It was common, too, at the south, and in a less degree in the middle states, for leading families to send their sons abroad to

¹ History of the school of the collegiate reformed Dutch church in the city of New York, etc. H. W. Dunshee, New York, 1883, *passim*.

² Travels in New England and New York, 4 vols. London, 1823, vol. IV, p. 443.

³ The Life of George Mason, etc. Kate Mason Rowland, N. Y. London, 1892, vol. I, pp. 96, 97.

be educated. Thus the father and two elder brothers of Washington were sent to Appleby school in England. Foreign trained teachers were much more common at the south than at the north. Andrew Bell, author of the Madras system of education, taught in Virginia through the period of the revolutionary war.¹ The Scotch-Irish race, both in and out of the country, furnished a large number of teachers, some of whom were as vagrant in their habits as the wandering scholars of the sixteenth century. "The whole southern country," writes one who has carefully studied the subject, "was opened to the wandering teachers, all the way from an educational tramp and a drunken importation from a British university, to now and then, probably, a competent teacher." Such men as these were met with everywhere, but more commonly at the south and west.

Following the revolution, as the different sections of the union became more closely knit together, New England, which had a surplus of teachers, such as they were, began to send her overplus beyond her borders. Other states at the north followed her example. Probably the practice antedated the war; but now the "Yankee" schoolmaster became better known in the south and west than ever the Scotch professor had been known in continental countries in the middle ages. It may be worth recalling that it was one of these New England schoolmasters, Eli Whitney, who invented the cotton gin, which gave such an impulse to cotton production and cotton manufacture. William Ellery Channing taught as a private instructor in Richmond, Virginia, in 1798-1800; William H. Seward taught part of the year 1819 in Georgia; Salmon P. Chase carried on his select classical seminary in Washington in 1827-28, while studying law in the office of William Wirt; and at a later day James G. Blaine taught for a time in the Western Military institute at the Blue Lick Springs, Kentucky. Women, as well as men, went to the south to teach. Probably most of these

¹ The Life of Rev. Andrew Bell, etc. By Robert Southey, London, 1844, vol. I, chap. II.

teachers returned north again after a period of service ; but some remained and became identified with the country. Thus the gentleman quoted from above testifies: "In my wanderings through the older Atlantic states, I have come upon a good many old men and women who left New England as teachers and married and settled among the people."¹ It must be added that at the south, and in the middle states in less degree, men of superior education looked with little favor upon teaching as a vocation, being more interested in the professions or in public life.

The general situation in the first quarter of the present century may be summed up as follows: The teachers of the best academies, grammar schools, and select schools were educated men, a large majority of them trained in the colleges of the country, but some in the universities of the old world, particularly of England and of Scotland. Not unfrequently these teachers were ministers of religion actually in charge of parishes or churches. In fact, it had always been common for ministers to teach, if not formal schools, then private pupils in their own studies. Next to this group the best educated teachers, as a class, were college students and young men preparing for professional life — the law, medicine, or the ministry — who had resorted to teaching for the time as a means of supplying themselves with needed funds. John Adams, after graduating from Harvard college in 1755, taught for a time in the grammar school at Worcester, Massachusetts. Some of these persons, by reason of aptitude, enthusiasm, and scholarly attainments, were excellent teachers. The third group to be mentioned was composed of persons who had studied in the academies and grammar and select schools but had not attended institutions of a higher grade. These were found not only in the elementary schools but in the grammar schools and academies themselves. Schools of this grade, it may be explained, performed a double function; they sent young men to the colleges, but a much larger number directly into practical life. Much of

¹ Dr. A. D. Mayo, in private letter.

the instruction that they furnished, especially the inferior schools, was of a strictly elementary character. The fourth group, found in the common schools, were fitted, so far as they were fitted at all, some in the grammar school and academies, but many more in just such schools as they taught themselves. Sometimes, however, a college student, or even graduate, was found in one of the common schools.

In America, as in Europe, the education of women had been greatly neglected. In the first half of the eighteenth century fewer than forty per cent of the women of New England who signed legal papers wrote their names; the others made their mark.¹ Mrs. John Adams, writing of the middle of the century, said female education in the best families went no further than writing and arithmetic; in some few and rare instances music and dancing. It was fashionable, she said also, to ridicule female learning.² Girls were not admitted to the public schools of Boston until 1769. When the first quarter of this century was well turned some change for the better was apparent; but even then, there were slight manifestations of that splendid outburst of interest in women's education which was carried in the bosom of the great democratic movement. All this was the more unfortunate because a large proportion of the teachers, at least in the northern states, were women, who were, generally speaking, grossly incompetent and miserably paid.

Still it must not be supposed that, down to the educational revival, no attention was given to the qualification and preparation of teachers. That were a great mistake; the maintenance of colleges and academies was often advocated on the ground that they would furnish teachers for the common schools. Dr. Franklin, for example, in urging the claims of the Academy of Philadelphia, now the University of Pennsylvania, remarked upon the great need of school-

¹ The Evolution of the Massachusetts public school system, G. H. Martin, New York, 1894, p. 75.

² The Familiar letters of John Adams and his wife Abigail Adams during the revolution, with a memoir of Mrs. Adams by Charles Francis Adams. New York, 1876, pp. xxi, 339.

masters, and said the academy would be able to furnish teachers of good morals well prepared to teach children reading, writing, arithmetic, and the grammar of their mother tongue.¹ But nothing was said or done, so far as known, relative to instructing prospective teachers in the science and the art of teaching.

It is clear, therefore, that, at the opening of this century, there was urgent need of a general educational revival throughout the country, and particularly of a revival, or creation, of interest in the training of teachers. Both of these needs were the more pressing because population was largely increasing, owing partly to its growing density in the old states, but more to its rapid extension into the new regions of the west. There was, in fact, no other part of the union where the schoolmaster so much needed to be abroad as on the western frontiers.

In fact, the two elements that have just been mentioned could not be separated. In America, as in Europe, the demand for better teachers was a marked feature of the great democratic movement towards popular education; perhaps it may be called *the* feature of this movement. Early in this century calls began to be heard in various parts of the United States, at first in slow and then in rapid succession. These calls were not made according to a program; there was no central propaganda; in fact, there was little direct connection between the early discussions and efforts to do something in different parts of the country. On the other hand, these discussions and efforts sprang from the forces or causes that produced the great educational uprising in this country and in other countries. Men will differ as to the relative power of these forces, or perhaps even as to the number; but the best judges, it is believed, will hardly dispute the assertion that, in America at least, the democratic spirit was the most far reaching and efficacious of such causes. "Schools must be provided for the

¹ History of education in Pennsylvania, etc. J. P. Wickersham, Lancaster, Pa., 1886, p. 606.

people", "the property of the state must educate the youth of the state", "the schools must have better teachers", became national watchwords.¹

I NORMAL SCHOOLS

The highly mechanical method of teaching that bears the names of Bell and Lancaster, called also mutual and monitorial instruction, demanded much skill in its conductors. Among other places, this method took root in the city of Philadelphia, and there, in 1818, it called into existence the model school, which was, no doubt, the first school established in the country for the training of teachers; it did not, however, outlive the movement of which it was a part.

The first permanent normal schools were the three founded at Lexington, Barrie, and Bridgewater, Massachusetts, in 1839-40. They were an outgrowth of the interest in popular education and especially of interest in schools for preparing common school teachers, which had been increasing for years, and particularly after German influence began to be felt upon American education, that is, about 1820. These primitive schools were in all respects on a small scale—studies, teachers and pupils. Candidates to be admitted were required to be, if males, seventeen years old, if females, sixteen years. They were required to declare an intention to become school teachers; they also took an entrance examination, and submitted evidence of intellectual capacity and moral character. The minimum term of study was fixed at one year, and at its expiration the pupil, if deserving, was promised a certificate of qualification. The official course of study, prepared by the state board of education, said the studies first to be attended to should be those which the law required to be taught in the district schools, viz.:

¹The writer has given a much fuller account of the state of schools in the United States previous to 1837 in his work entitled "Horace Mann and the common school revival in the United States." New York, 1898, chaps. I, II. See also chapters on various aspects of our educational history by Dr. A. D. Mayo, in the reports of the commissioner of education, 1895, 1896, 1897. Also chap. XXIX of the last named report.

orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography and arithmetic. When these were thoroughly mastered, those of a higher order might be progressively taken. Persons wishing to remain at the school more than one year, in order to increase their qualifications for teaching a public school, might do so, having first obtained the consent of the principal; and to meet their needs, a further course of study was marked out. The whole course, properly arranged, was as follows:

(1) Orthography, reading, grammar, composition and rhetoric, logic; (2) writing, drawing; (3) arithmetic, mental and written, algebra, geometry, bookkeeping, navigation, surveying; (4) geography, ancient and modern, with chronology, statistics, and general history; (5) physiology; (6) mental philosophy; (7) music; (8) constitution and history of Massachusetts and of the United States; (9) natural philosophy and astronomy; (10) natural history; (11) the principles of piety and morality common to all sects of Christians; (12) the science and art of teaching, with reference to all the above named studies. A portion of the Scriptures should be read daily in every normal school.

A selection from the above studies should be made by those who were to remain at the school but one year, according to the particular kind of school it might be their intention to teach. To each normal school an experimental or model school was attached, where the pupils could reduce to practice the knowledge that they acquired of the science and art of teaching. Every school was put in the immediate charge of a principal aided by needed assistants.¹

Such was the program. Perhaps it is to-day most interesting when viewed as a gauge of the time, or as a base line from which to measure progress.

These primitive schools were the joint product of private and public liberality; both citizens and the legislature shared in founding them; moreover, they were an experi-

¹ The Common school journal, edited by Horace Mann, secretary of the Massachusetts board of education, vol. I, pp. 32-38.

ment, the legislature refusing at first to commit itself to their maintenance beyond the period of three years; but they so commended themselves to the public that they were soon regularly incorporated into the state system of public instruction. Furthermore, not only have these schools greatly grown, in number of pupils and teachers, in appliances and breadth of studies, and in influence, but others have been added to the list until Massachusetts has now nine state normal schools.

The northern and western states have generally adopted the normal school idea. In the west they spring out of the soil and grow up side by side with the other institutions of civil society. Nor is this all. At the close of the civil war there was not a single normal school in the southern states; since that time, however, they have been generally introduced as an indispensable feature of the common school system. The places and times at which some of the leading schools were established will illustrate the progress of the movement.

Albany, N. Y., 1844.	Framington, Maine, 1864.
New Britain, Connecticut, 1850.	Winona, Minnesota, 1864.
Ypsilanti, Michigan, 1852.	Chicago (Cook county), Ill., 1867.
Boston, Massachusetts, 1852.	Plattville, Wisconsin, 1866.
Normal, Illinois, 1857.	Nashville, Tennessee, 1875.
Millersville, Pennsylvania, 1859.	Cedar Falls, Iowa, 1876.
Oswego, New York, 1860.	Terre Haute, Indiana, 1870.
Emporia, Kansas, 1864.	

New York now has twelve public normal schools, Pennsylvania thirteen, Massachusetts nine, West Virginia, North Carolina, Missouri, and Wisconsin seven each. No other state has more than six, and a few have none. Ohio, however, is the only great state that has no state normal school.

Perhaps no school in this list has exerted a greater influence than the Oswego school. This influence has been largely due to the practical application that was here made of Pestalozzian ideas and methods, and to the great ability and elevation of character of its founder, Dr. E. A. Sheldon.

This development has been due partly to the quickening example of Massachusetts, but far more to the general prevalence of the same causes that acted in that state. A high educational authority has said that "all normal school work in the country follows substantially one tradition, and this * * * traces back to the course laid down at Lexington in 1839."¹ There is truth in this view, but the operation of the same general causes was, no doubt, a more powerful factor than direct imitation.

We come now to the question, What and how much are the students in the normal schools doing? Only a general answer can be given.

Candidates for admission to the Massachusetts schools must be graduates of approved high schools, or must have received an equivalent education. The general two years' course designed for intending teachers below the high school comprises, (1) psychology, history of education, principles of education, methods of instruction and discipline, school organization, and the laws of Massachusetts; (2) methods of teaching English, mathematics, science, vocal music, physical culture, and manual training; (3) observation in the model school and in other public schools. The Bridgewater school has a regular four years' course embracing, in addition to the foregoing studies, work of a more academic character, as instruction in Latin and French, Greek and German, English literature, history, etc. This course looks to the preparation of grammar school principals and a grade of high school teachers. Bridgewater also offers a three years' course, a cross between the other two, while provision is also made for advanced instruction for college graduates and other approved candidates in all the schools. Diplomas are given to graduates from all courses.²

¹ Dr. W. T. Harris, oration delivered at Framingham, Mass., 1888. See Proceedings of the semi-centennial celebration of the founding of state normal schools in this country.

² See Sixty-second annual report of the board of education, Massachusetts, 1897-98, *passim*; also reports of the various normal schools, particularly that of the school at Bridgewater for 1898-99.

The other state normal schools, while conforming in the main to the Massachusetts type, present numerous variations. The common standard for admission is not as high by at least two years of high school study. Often, however, there will be found a greater variety of instruction than the Massachusetts schools furnish, and partly for the very reason that the standard is not as high. On the whole, for some years past there has been a marked tendency to raise the standard of admission and to strengthen and diversify courses of study. Advanced courses for normal school graduates and other candidates having an equivalent education are well nigh universal. Furthermore, the best schools in their best courses give an amount of instruction that will carry the student nearly, if not quite, to the middle of a good college course. Naturally, therefore, many students pass from the normal schools to the colleges and universities. Special courses for college graduates are often met with, designed to give, in a single year, a professional preparation for teaching.

Some schools have assumed the higher name of college, in connection with the assumption of some higher function. Thus, the Michigan state normal college gives the degree of bachelor of pedagogics to students who complete satisfactorily its four years' course of study. It also confers the corresponding master's degree upon those bachelors who comply with some further conditions, none of which, however, involve the element of residence.

The Normal college of the city of New York, which has as its main function the training of teachers for the schools of that city, offers two main courses of instruction, the normal course of four years and the academic course of five years. A special diploma is granted to those students who complete the normal course; moreover, such graduates may obtain the degree of bachelor of arts or bachelor of science, if they successfully pursue a two years' graduate course in literature or science. The academic course, which contains Greek, is crowned with the degree of bachelor of arts,

and graduates in this course may receive the degree of master of arts provided they afterwards pursue graduate studies for at least two years. The degree of bachelor of pedagogy or doctor of pedagogy may be conferred on any graduate in either of these courses who has made a study of the science and the art of teaching for a period of at least two years after graduation. Graduation from an approved high school, or an equivalent amount of education, is the educational qualification for admission.

One of the prominent institutions of this class is the New York state normal college at Albany. This institution is an outgrowth of the first New York normal school, founded in 1844, the reorganization taking place in 1890. It is a professional school exclusively, not duplicating the instruction given in literary colleges. The purely professional work in both courses, the English and classical, is the same, and graduates from both receive life certificates to teach in the public schools of the state; graduates in the higher course also receive the degree of bachelor of pedagogy. Graduates from fifty colleges and universities have sought instruction in the college.

The two oldest public normal schools of Illinois are called normal universities. The name, however, is purely historical, and has no educational significance whatever.

The cities have followed the states in founding normal schools, often called, however, training schools. The principal reason for maintaining such schools is the urgent need for trained teachers for the local system of schools, which cannot be otherwise supplied. Other reasons, as the desire on the part of local authorities to round out the system with a professional school, and the wish of parents to have their daughters prepared for teaching, also exert some influence. Many of the public normal schools fall into this class. Nearly all the large cities, and many of the small ones, have their own independent schools. Greater New York has several of them. These schools commonly make graduation from the local high school, or an equivalent education, a

qualification for admission, and they graduate their students after a one year's or a two years' course. In 1895 the legislature of New York passed an act which authorizes the cities of the state and villages employing superintendents of schools, to establish and maintain one or more schools or classes for the professional instruction and training of teachers in the principles of education and in the method of instruction, for not less than thirty-eight weeks in each school year. Such schools receive assistance from the state funds; the requirements for admission and the course of study are fixed by the state superintendent of public instruction, under whose general direction such schools are carried on; graduation from an approved high school or academy has been made the test of admission. The results have been so encouraging that the superintendent pronounces the law the most important statute relating to its subject which has been enacted in any state in the union.¹

With the single exception of the Philadelphia model school, the first schools of the country to train teachers were private schools, created and carried on by their owners and managers, as means of livelihood and instruments of doing good. Nor has the establishment of public schools driven the private ones out of the field. On the contrary, the private schools have greatly increased in number, and have assumed the name normal. Some of them are the property of corporations, some of private owners. A few rival the public schools in number of students and teachers and in equipment. They are more numerous, but have not so large an aggregate attendance, as the accompanying statistics will show.

The Peabody Normal college, Nashville, Tennessee, has a unique history among American schools for the training of teachers. It takes its name from the distinguished philanthropist George Peabody, a name well known in both worlds, and derives the larger part of its support from the education fund that Mr. Peabody created in 1867-69, committing it to

¹ Report of the superintendent of public instruction, New York, 1898, vol. I, xxv.

a board of trust, with instructions to apply the income, at their discretion, for the promotion and encouragement of intellectual, moral, or industrial education among the young of the more destitute portions of the southern and southwestern states of the American union. This board soon made choice of the preparation of teachers as the best means of carrying out the founder's wishes. In connection with the trustees of the university of Nashville, an old institution of learning that had fallen into decay, the board founded, in 1875, the normal school, which has since expanded into the college. The state of Tennessee has since come to the assistance of the two boards of trustees. The general agent of the Peabody fund says of it: "Giving to all the southern states the benefit of improved normal instruction widened the college from a local state institution into a college for the south." And again: "In establishing the college there there was no intent to favor Tennessee above other southern states. The training of teachers for all the southern states was the object. As the munificence of Mr. Peabody was the stimulus and the means for establishing systems of public schools in the states, so the normal college has pointed the way and aroused the effort for the organizing of more local but indispensable normal schools."¹ The college is the literary department of the university of Nashville, and confers, in addition to the degree of licentiate of instruction, the usual degrees conferred by the literary and scientific colleges. The Peabody trustees, besides their other contributions to the support of the college, provide a liberal system of scholarships for the assistance of students who wish to prepare themselves for teaching.

In the normal schools of the country women hold the same relative preponderance as students that they hold in the common schools as teachers, as the statistics clearly show.² It

¹ A Brief sketch of George Peabody and a history of the Peabody education fund through thirty years, by J. L. M. Curry, Cambridge, 1898.

² In 1896-97 the numbers of male and female teachers in the common schools of the country, as reported by the bureau of education, were as follows: Males, 131,381; females, 271,949.

is interesting to observe, however, that they are far more numerous, relatively as well as absolutely, in the public normal schools than in the private ones, which is owing, for the most part probably, to the fact that tuition is free in the one case and not in the other.

Kindergarten teachers are frequently trained for their work in normal schools, and occasionally manual training teachers as well. Mention may be made in particular of the Chicago Kindergarten college, which aims to extend help to kindergartners, primary teachers, mothers, or other persons intrusted with the education of little children. The work is distributed among seven different departments, of which the teachers' department stands first, followed immediately by the mothers' department. The teachers' department provides both central and branch classes. The regular teachers' course is three years, the educational qualification for admission to it being a high school education or its equivalent.

Numerous and well attended as normal schools have become, they still come very far short of supplying the common schools with a sufficient number of professionally trained teachers. In this connection it must be considered that a great army of teachers is required to carry on the common schools of the country, and that a great majority of this army serve for short periods. In 1896-97 the total number was 403,333, and it increases by an increment of many thousand every year. Assuming that ten per cent pass out of the service every year, which is a very moderate estimate, we see that more than 40,000 recruits are needed annually to keep the ranks full, to say nothing of meeting the growth of the country. But this number is more than three times the number of normal graduates in 1897-98, and more than one-half the total number of students in all the training schools and classes in the country. No state makes a better showing than Massachusetts; but in 1897-98 only 38.5 per cent of her teachers in public schools had received normal instruction, and only 33.5 per cent were normal graduates. Of those who had not received such

instruction, the secretary of the state board of education says a few have probably been appointed without reference to their fitness for their work; some have had a little preliminary training in schools for the purpose; some began to teach before normal preparation had attracted the attention of school committees that it has done in recent years, while some are college graduates.¹ Unfortunately, we do not possess the statistics that would enable us to make a similar showing for the whole country.²

STATISTICS OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE UNITED STATES FOR
1897-98³

	Public normal schools	Private normal schools	Total
Number of normal schools.....	167	173	345
Teachers instructing normal students.....	1,863	1,008	2,871
Students in teachers' training courses.....	46,245	21,293	67,538
Male students.....	12,578	10,597	23,175
Female students.....	33,667	10,696	44,363
Number normal graduates.....	8,188	3,067	11,255
Male graduates.....	1,543	1,680	3,223
Female graduates.....	6,645	1,378	8,023
Volumes in libraries.....	566,684	194,460	761,144
Value of buildings, grounds, apparatus....	\$19,983,222	\$5,047,507	\$25,027,729
Value of benefactions received in 1897-98.	335,185	240,203	576,388
Total money value of endowment.....	1,472,865	2,311,594	3,784,459
Appropriated by states, counties and cities for buildings and improvements, 1897-98.	417,866	417,866
Appropriated by same for support.....	2,566,132	19,696	2,585,828
Received from tuition and other fees.....	514,562	648,459	1,163,021
Received from productive funds.....	57,648	38,759	96,407
Received from other sources and unclassified.....	307,409	191,995	499,404
Total income for 1897-98.....	3,445,751	893,909	4,344,660

¹ Sixty-second annual report of the board of education, Massachusetts, 1897-98, p. 148.

² President J. G. Schurman, of Cornell university, has calculated from data furnished by the report of the commissioner of education that in 1891-92 the total increase of teachers in the schools was less than two per cent, but that nearly seventeen per cent of the whole number of teachers were inexperienced beginners. Assuming that these per cents are typical, he infers that the average length of the professional career of the American teacher is between seven and eight years. From data furnished by the same authority, he calculates that only fifteen per cent of the teachers then in the schools had passed through a normal school.—*The Forum*, Vol. XXI, pp. 174, 179.

³ This table is furnished by the commissioner of education in advance of its publication in his report for the year 1897-98.

Dr. W. T. Harris has shown that in the past seventeen years the enrollment in normal schools reported by states or cities has increased from about 10,000 to something over 40,000. The attendance on normal schools formed and supported by private enterprise has increased from about 2,000 to 24,000, though the increase has been very slow in the last three years. In 1880 there were 240 normal students in each million of inhabitants; in 1897 there were 976 in each million.¹

The American normal schools answer, in general, to the normal schools of France and Italy, the training colleges of England, and the teachers' seminaries of Switzerland and Germany. They differ, however, from all these schools in important particulars. For instance, they offer at least three points of contrast to the German teachers' seminaries.

First, in respect to the instruction furnished. While the German schools confine themselves exclusively to training intending teachers, including, to be sure, much academic instruction, American schools generally do a large amount of miscellaneous teaching. To a great extent they parallel the high schools and to some extent even the elementary schools. In the second place, this wide range of work accounts in part for the much greater size of the American schools. In 1888 only five of the 115 normal schools of Prussia had upwards of a hundred pupils, while one had less than fifty; but several of our state schools count more than a thousand pupils. It must always be borne in mind that a large proportion of these American pupils are in no proper sense normal pupils. In the third place, there is necessarily a great disparity in the size of the respective faculties. An ordinary Prussian normal school requires but nine teachers, including the two in the practice school, while our normal school staffs often number fifty or more persons.

It is clear, therefore, that we have not yet realized the pure normal school type as Germany, for example, has done. Nor can it be doubted that our schools as institutions for

training teachers have often suffered greatly from their overgrown numbers and large classes. In Prussia, once more, the average number of pupils per teacher is not more than twelve. It is accordingly to be hoped that in the future we may realize the normal school idea in purer form than in the past.¹

II TEACHERS' TRAINING CLASSES

For the school year 1896-97 there reported to the Bureau of Education 1,487 institutions which enrolled 89,974 normal students, or students pursuing courses designed for the professional training of teachers. Those students who were pursuing in these schools other courses of study are not included in this total. The following table will show how the students were distributed :

Schools	Number	Students
Public normal schools.....	164	43,199
Private normal schools.....	198	24,181
Colleges and universities.....	196	6,489
Public high schools.....	507	9,001
Private high schools and academies.....	422	7,064

Nothing need be added to what was said in the former division of this monograph concerning the normal schools.

But the normal students, so called, in the colleges and universities are a less definite body of persons. The normal work that many of them do does not differ in character from that done in the proper normal schools; a smaller number are taking the strictly professional courses leading

¹ On normal schools in the United States, see the following authorities: Henry Barnard, *Normal schools and other institutions, agencies, and means designed for the professional instruction of teachers*, Hartford, 1851. J. P. Gordy, *Rise and growth of the normal school idea in the United States*, Washington, 1891. G. H. Martin, *The Evolution of the Massachusetts system of public instruction*, New York, 1894, Lecture IV. B. A. Hinsdale, *Horace Mann and the common school period in the United States*, New York, 1898, chapter VI. S. S. Randall, *History of the common school system of the State of New York*, New York, 1871, *passim*. J. P. Wickersham, *History of education in Pennsylvania, etc.*, Lancaster, Pa., 1894, *passim*. A. P. Hollis, *The contribution of the Oswego normal school to educational progress in the United States*, Boston, 1898. *Proceedings of the semi-centennial celebration of the state normal school at Framingham, 1889*, particularly the oration delivered by Dr. W. T. Harris.

up to the academic degrees, which will be explained in another place; some are members of what may be called teachers' training classes. The training work done in the institutions of this class is of very different degrees of quality; some of it, perhaps, amounting to nothing more than attendance upon one or two courses of lectures, while some of it is of strictly university grade. The statistics given under this head are the least value of all, partly on account of the facts just stated, and partly because the returns are not complete.

The normal students in high schools and academies, more than 16,000 in number, are, generally speaking, in training classes. They may be divided into three groups.

First, many of these students in the private schools, and no doubt some in the public ones, have had nothing more than a fair elementary education, if indeed some of them have had as much education as that. They are looking forward to teaching, most of them in the district schools, and have come into the high schools and academies where they are found to enlarge their knowledge of the branches that they expect to teach and to receive some professional instruction in addition.

Secondly, some instruction in the principles of education and its history is often made an elective study in the last year of the high school or academy course for those students who are looking forward to teaching. The elementary schools look for many of their teachers to the graduates of the high schools and academies, particularly the public high schools, and even the limited amount of training that they receive fits them in a measure for teaching.

Thirdly, classes are sometimes formed in these schools consisting of graduates who wish, or are required, to fit themselves more thoroughly for the teacher's work. Such classes do not differ from the city training schools, only they are less fully developed. They may be called rudimentary training schools.

The training class is an old device for preparing elementary

teachers. Thus New York early sought to solve the teacher problem for the common schools by providing instruction for teachers in the academies of the state, under the management of the regents of the university. This experiment did not prove to be as successful as had been hoped, and the state supplemented it by adopting the normal school policy. The earlier plan was never abandoned, however, but in 1889 the supervision of training classes was transferred to the department of public instruction. In the year 1888-89 sixty institutions were authorized to organize and to carry on such classes. In 1895 the legislature passed the law referred to under the last heading, which has put the training classes on a new footing both as respects management and instruction.

With a single exception the leading features of this act have already been given. The omitted feature is that no person shall be employed or licensed to teach in the elementary schools of any city or village authorized by law to employ a superintendent of schools (that is, cities and villages having 5,000 inhabitants or more) who has not taught successfully at least three years, or in lieu of such experience, graduated from a high school or other school of equal or higher rank, having a course of study of not less than three years approved by the state superintendent of public instruction, and subsequently received at least as much professional training as that furnished by one of these training schools or classes; local boards were left free to place their requirements as much higher as they see fit.

The terms of admission to the training classes are the same as those for the training schools organized under the same law. The course of instruction embraces the leading common branches, the history of education, school management and school law, and the art of questioning. Instruction in the school studies includes both subject-matter and method, together with some work in the observation and practice school. In his report for 1897-98, the state superintendent says that in no branch of the work under his direc-

tion have more gratifying results been secured than in the training classes. For that year there were organized eighty-three such classes, enrolling 1,278 students. The same year fourteen cities organized training schools under the law with an attendance of 523.¹

III TEACHERS' INSTITUTES

The teachers' institute, which is an original American institution for training teachers, has grown up side by side with the normal school. The commonly accepted account of its origin is that it dates from conventions of teachers held in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1839 and 1840, under the leadership of Dr. Henry Barnard. That it met a popular need is shown by its rapid spread. The first institute in New York, and the first anywhere to bear the name, was held in 1843; the first in Massachusetts and Ohio, 1845; the first in Michigan and Illinois, in 1846; the first in Wisconsin, in 1848, and the first in Iowa, the year following. The institute system soon embraced the whole northwest, and it was established in the south along with common schools after the civil war.

At first the institute was a purely voluntary agency. There were no funds for its support, save such as the teachers attending and public-spirited citizens supplied. Often citizens showed such interest in the work that they freely opened their houses to receive the teachers, not as boarders but as guests. But such an instrument of power could not long remain outside the limits of the law. Massachusetts appropriated money for institutes in 1846; New York and Ohio, in 1847; Pennsylvania, in 1855. In course of time the institution was firmly imbedded in state school laws, and at present most of the states, if not all of them, give it some legal recognition and financial support. Tuition is free, unless, indeed, as is often the case, the teachers voluntarily

¹On teachers' training classes in the state of New York, see S. S. Randall, *History of the common school system of the State of New York*, N. Y., 1871, *passim*, and reports of the state superintendent of public instruction, 1889-90, and 1897-98, *passim*.

contribute out of their own pockets fees, in order to extend the length of the session or to provide better instruction than would otherwise be possible.

Institutes are of numerous types, presenting such divergencies that it is difficult to define the species. There are state institutes and county institutes; district, city, and town institutes. However, the best known type takes its name from the county, which is the civil division that, as a rule, furnishes the best unit of organization and management. This type alone presents many varying features. Some county institutes continue but a day or two; some, several weeks. Some are conducted by state authorities, as the superintendent of public instruction or his assistants; some by local authorities, as county superintendents, or officers of teachers' institute associations. Some are carried on much like a school, with text books, set lessons, and recitations, together with lectures; some depend upon lectures alone. Some are graded with a view to securing instruction especially adapted to the different classes of teachers; others are wholly unclassified and the attendants all receive the same instruction. Sometimes two or more counties are thrown together in one district, it may be for a year only, in order to secure, through the concentration of funds and influence, a longer term and better advantages. State institutes, which are infrequent, commonly look more to the needs and interests of the better teachers of the state. City institutes are conducted with special reference to local needs.

Dr. Barnard called his conventions of teachers only as a temporary expedient. In his first circular announcing his purpose, he proposed to give those teachers an "opportunity to revise and extend their knowledge [1] of the studies usually pursued in district schools and [2] of the best methods of school arrangements, instruction and government under the recitations and lectures of experienced and well-known teachers and educators." On these two lines the institute has continued to move; that is, it has combined, with fluctuating emphasis, the two ideas of general and special prepa-

ration for teachers. Commonly the revision and extension of studies comes through the instruction in methods, as instructors or lecturers draw freely upon subject-matter for the purpose of illustration; but sometimes formal instruction is given in the more difficult parts of the several subjects taught in the schools, as geography, grammar, history, and the like. The professional instruction relates to the science, the art, and the history of teaching, and school organization, management, and economy. Mention should be made, however, of what may be called the culture aspect of the institute—the lectures and other exercises that bring forward literary, historic, scientific, and other similar subjects. The institutes of the states taken together would furnish a wide range of instruction and culture. In those of Massachusetts for 1897–98, there were presented seventy-three distinct topics, which no doubt considerably overlapped.

Putting all the facts together, we may give this definition of a teachers' institute: A school for teachers having a short and a vaguely defined course of study, and having as its main object the instruction of teachers, and particularly non-professional teachers, in the elements of their art and their stimulation to excellence in scholarship and teaching.

The institutes are held in all seasons of the year, summer being, perhaps, the preferred time. In Pennsylvania and New York, in both of which states the work is well organized, they come in the months October–December and March–May.

So long as attendance was purely voluntary the results were gratifying but not satisfactory; often, but not universally, the principle of legal compulsion has therefore been invoked. In 1867 Pennsylvania passed a law requiring acting teachers to attend their respective institutes. A similar provision is in force in the state of New York. When attendance is compulsory, the teacher's salary goes on, the same as though she were on duty in the school room; at least if the institute is held in the school term. In such cases the local school authorities are required to

close the schools, but when attendance is optional, they follow their own counsel in the matter.

Statistics of teachers' institutes are not found in the recent annual reports of the Bureau of Education. For the year 1886-87 the commissioner reported 2,003 institutes, with an enrolled attendance of 138,986 persons. It would not be wide of the mark, perhaps, to say that the annual attendance equals one-half the total number of teachers in the schools.

Institute instruction is a more difficult art than class-room instruction. It combines the best elements of the lecture and the recitation. It is not surprising therefore that the institute has created a class of professional instructors or lecturers. The agents of the Massachusetts board of education devote much time to the institutes, while New York supports a special institute faculty. There has also appeared a class of lecturers, some with and some without other educational connections, who move in much wider circles, visiting institutes in widely separated states. Still, taking the country together, the main reliance is upon men and women who are regularly engaged in school work, as superintendents, and principals of schools and professional teachers. College and normal school professors are also frequently drawn into the service. In fact, if the annals of the institute were written in full, they would contain the names of many of the most eminent scholars and teachers, men of letters and men of science, of the last sixty years. Instruction in the methods of the institute is often given in normal schools.

The so-called summer institutes, extending over a period of from four to six weeks, which call together large numbers of enthusiastic teachers and very able corps of instructors, and which are becoming more common every year, do not differ materially from the summer schools soon to be mentioned, in character. They are, however, carried on under state auspices, while those schools are local or private enterprises.

At first the institute was regarded as a merely temporary expedient: it has already continued sixty years. Again,

while it was called into existence only as a means of helping persons who were already engaged in teaching, it has, unfortunately, sometimes been made an agent for preparing intending teachers for their work. Still, representative educators have never for a moment regarded it as a substitute for the school, either general or special. Pressed into a service for which it was never intended, it has been the source of some evil; but the balance is overwhelmingly on the other side. It has been useful in ways that the founders did not anticipate or fully anticipate. It has given teachers higher ideals of education and teaching, enlarged their acquaintance with educational men and with one another, created professional spirit, and generated enthusiasm. It has also been an important means of developing educational intelligence and interest in society. Upon the whole, there is reason to think that the teachers' institute possesses lasting usefulness; in other words, that it fills a place in our school economy that no other agent can fill, and that it will become one of our permanent educational institutions.¹

IV THE SUMMER SCHOOL FOR TEACHERS

In its more popular form, the summer school for teachers is a sort of cross between the normal school and the teachers' institute. Three types may be recognized.

The first type to be mentioned is seen in the schools that form part of the summer assemblies sometimes called "Chautauquas," which combine popular entertainment, recreation and diversion, and social intercourse with serious instruction and ethical and religious culture.

The next type is the familiar summer school, seen at the normal schools, colleges, and universities. Such schools

¹ Authorities on teachers' institutes.— Henry Barnard, normal schools, etc., Hartford, 1851; The American journal of education, vol. III, p. 673, XIV, p. 253, XV, p. 276, 405, XXII, p. 557. J. H. Smart, Teachers' institutes, Washington, 1887. S. S. Randall, History of the common school system of the state of New York, N. Y., 1871, *passim*. J. P. Wickersham, History of education in Pennsylvania, Lancaster, Pa., 1884, *passim*. James P. Milne, Teachers' institutes, Syracuse, N. Y., 1894. B. A. Hinsdale, Horace Mann and the common school revival in the United States, pp. 136-138.

have been stimulated by the example of Chicago university in offering to students regular summer terms. At some of the normal schools the summer school has already become a regular summer session ; moreover, there are indications that some of the colleges and universities will do the same thing ; in fact, the University of Wisconsin has already taken the step.

Schools of the third type are organized and carried on at chosen seats by private individuals or by associations of individuals. These schools combine both business and educational features. They are generally found at places offering attractive features as summer resorts, and so offer to their patrons the combined attraction of an outing and a term of school. Perhaps the best known of all these institutions is that of Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts, founded in 1878 and chartered three years later. It is also called an institute. It has twenty academical departments, counts forty instructors on its staff, and enrolls annually five hundred students. In the twenty-one years of its history it has taught 9,000 or 10,000 persons.

Irrespective of type these schools commonly offer to their patrons both general and special advantages ; in other words, they teach both academical and pedagogical subjects, and also introduce cultural elements of a considerably diversified character. While they offer attractions to other persons, and actually enroll some of them in their classes, the great functions of these schools is to fit teachers and intending teachers for their work. Their faculties contain many instructors and lecturers of marked ability and high standing in the world of letters, education, or science. All things considered, serious instruction has not perhaps anywhere been offered to teachers in a more attractive form than in the best of these summer schools. These schools, no doubt, approach nearer than any other agencies for fitting teachers in the United States to the great summer meetings held for the same purpose at Oxford, Cambridge, and Edinburgh.¹

¹ Balfour Graham, *The Educational systems of Great Britain and Ireland*, Oxford, 1898, pp. 252, 253.

V UNIVERSITY EXTENSION COURSES

University extension is an importation from England. Here, as there, the idea is to carry the university to the student rather than to bring the student to the university. However, the "university" that is so carried is sometimes nothing more than a secondary school. The method involves a local center, a local committee of managers, local arrangements, including the guaranteeing of a certain sum of money, and an instructor. The university sends the instructor, who gives a course of lectures on a subject previously agreed upon; a class follows each lecture, essays are prepared and corrected, and needed books are supplied. In its purity the method involves a final examination and the granting of certificates to deserving students. For some reason the results of university extension in the United States have been less satisfactory than in England. Ostensibly, the movement takes no account of teachers as teachers; and the only reason for including it in this survey is the fact that teachers are generally very prominent on the local committees and in attendance upon the classes. This fact has been recognized by the occasional presentation of instruction suitable to their particular needs; pedagogical courses are sometimes met with on extension programs.

VI TEACHERS' READING CIRCLES

The teachers' reading circle movement is believed to have originated in Ohio. Mrs. D. L. Williams, a veteran teacher of that state, threw out the primal idea in a paper read before the State teachers' association in July, 1882. She said she had for many years entertained the theory that a course of reading, partly professional and partly general, and reaching through several years, might be instituted under the management of the association that would be of extreme value, particularly to young teachers, and added that since the Chautauqua literary course had proved such an eminent success, she had more confidence than ever in

the feasibility of the plan. The suggestion was immediately caught up by the association, steps being taken at once that led to the immediate organization of a course of reading. The next year the Ohio teachers' reading circle was fully organized. The constitution embraced a board of control to conduct the general business in connection with the state association, a course of professional and literary reading, the issuing of certificates of progress to the members, and the granting of diplomas upon the completion of the course, which was to extend over four years. In 1884 a membership of more than 2,000 was reported, and in 1887 the first class was graduated.¹

Such was the beginning of a movement that has extended to many states of the Union. Naturally enough, the results that have been obtained in different states and communities vary considerably in respect to efficiency and value. It is generally conceded, however, that the Indiana circle has been conducted quite as successfully as any other of the state circles, if not indeed more successfully than any other, and this fact will be a sufficient justification for some remarks of a more specific character.

This circle, which was organized in December, 1883, derives its constitution from the State teachers' association. The executive management is placed in the hands of a board of directors, one of whom is the state superintendent of public instruction; of the six other members, one must be a county superintendent, one a city superintendent, and four practical teachers, all elected by the state association for a term of three years. It is the duty of the board to plan a course of reading from year to year to be pursued by the public school teachers of the state; to select the books to be read; to provide for examinations on the courses, and to prepare questions for the same; to issue certificates to such teachers as pass the annual examination satisfactorily, and to issue diplomas to such teachers as pass the examination

¹ The Ohio educational monthly, August, 1882, pp. 316, 323; August, 1883, pp. 307, 308, 309.

for four successive years. The board reports to the state association at its annual meeting. The annual membership is about fifteen thousand, twelve thousand teachers and three thousand intending teachers.

The Indiana teachers' reading circle has been a powerful influence in the education of the state. Several circumstances have contributed to its success. One of these has been the wise management of the board of directors, which has uniformly commanded the respect and confidence of teachers. The circle has been strengthened by the official recognition of its work by the state board of education. This the board does by accepting the examinations of the reading circle in literature and the science of teaching in lieu of examinations in those subjects by the regular examining authorities. The character of the reading that is done can best be shown by transcribing the list of books from the beginning.

- 1884-85 — Brooks' Mental Science; Barnes' General History; Parker's Talks on Teaching.
- 1885-86 — Brooks' Mental Science; Smith's English Literature; Hewitt's Pedagogy.
- 1886-87 — Hailman's Lectures on Education; Green's History of the English People; Watts on the Mind.
- 1887-88 — Lights of Two Centuries; Sully's Handbook of Psychology.
- 1888-89 — Compayré's History of Education; The Marble Faun; Heroes and Hero Worship.
- 1889-90 — Compayré's Lecture on Teaching; Steele's Popular Zoology.
- 1890-91 — Wood's How to Study Plants; Boone's Education in the United States; with review of previous psychological studies.
- 1891-92 — Page's Theory and Practice of Teaching; Hawthorne's Studies in American Literature.
- 1892-93 — Fiske's Civil Government in the United States; Holmes' Autocrat of the Breakfast Table.
- 1893-94 — DeGarmo's Essentials of Method; Orations of Burke and Webster.
- 1894-95 — Tompkins' Philosophy of Teaching; Select Letters and Essays of Ruskin.

1895-96—McMurry's General Method; Studies in Shakespeare.

1896-97—Guizot's History of Civilization; Tompkins' Literary Interpretations.

1897-98—Bryan's Plato the Teacher; Hinsdale's Teaching the Language-Arts.

1898-99—Henderson's Social Elements; Bryan's Plato's Republic.

The Indiana circle embraces no important feature that is not found in other states; such special prominence as it enjoys is due solely to good organization and wise management.¹

It must not be supposed that where this work is carried on efficiently it is left solely to teachers in their individual capacity; on the other hand, local classes or circles are formed, with prescribed reading for prescribed periods, which hold frequent meetings, conducted by a local leader, often the superintendent of schools. Enterprising educational journals contribute their help to the work by publishing in their successive issues articles that elucidate the books to be read.

The future of the teachers' reading circle is not, perhaps, fully assured. It is conceded that it has done much good in arousing interest in the better culture of teachers, in organizing courses of reading and study, and in giving the whole work unity and consistent direction. Still, the question is sometimes asked whether it would not now be better to leave the whole matter to local initiative and direction, or to entrust the powers now exercised by the state board of control or directors to local superintendents and their advisers. There is good reason to think that the answers which are given to this question are influenced not a little by the character of the work that has been done in the communities or states from which the answers come.

VI CHAIRS OF EDUCATION IN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

The growing interest in training teachers was not long in reaching the colleges and universities. The effect was first

¹ Report of the superintendent of public instruction of the state of Indiana, 1898, pp. 449-462.

seen in the academical sphere, but it soon declared itself in the professional sphere.

A course of instruction in the science of teaching was one of the features of the "new system" that President Wayland sought to establish at Brown university in 1850, but that system was not permanently successful owing to lack of the necessary funds to support it. Horace Mann caused the study of the theory and practice of teaching to be made a part of the regular course in Antioch college, Ohio, on the opening of that institution in 1853, but as an elective study. From 1856 to 1873 a normal school formed a department of the University of Iowa, and was then incorporated into the institution as a chair of didactics. In 1867 the legislature of Missouri authorized and required the curators of the State university to establish a professorship in that institution, to be devoted to the theory and practice of teaching and to call some suitable person to discharge its duties. The chair does not appear, however, to have been firmly established, although some instruction was given for several years in the subject, until 1891.

But it was at the University of Michigan that the teaching of education in an American college or university was first put on a solid basis. In 1874 President Angell, of that institution, incorporated the following paragraph in his annual report to the board of regents:

"It cannot be doubted that some instruction in pedagogics would be very helpful to our senior class. Many of them are called directly from the university to the management of large schools, some of them to the superintendency of the schools of a town. The whole work of organizing schools, the management of primary and grammar schools, the art of teaching and governing a school,—of all this it is desirable that they know something before they go to their new duties. Experience alone can thoroughly train them. But some familiar lectures would be of essential service to them."

In June, 1879, the regents, on the recommendation of the

president and faculty, established a chair of the science and the art of teaching, the objects of which were declared to be five in number: To fit university students for the higher positions in the public school service; to promote educational science; to teach the history of education and of educational doctrine; to secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives, and advantages of a profession; to give a more perfect unity to the state educational system by bringing the secondary schools into closer relation with the university. At the time the Bell chairs of education in the Universities of Edinburgh and St. Andrews were the only similar ones in English speaking countries.

At first only two courses of instruction were offered: A practical course, embracing school supervision, grading, courses of study, examinations, the art of instructing and governing, school architecture, school hygiene, school law, etc.; and an historical, philosophical, and critical course, embracing the history of education, the comparison and criticism of the systems of different countries, the outlines of educational science, the science of teaching, and the critical discussion of theories and methods. Two lectures a week were given in each course. Before this time, however, the university had given to students, on their passing examinations in certain subjects, a teacher's diploma, which was, however, merely a certificate to the student's competency to teach those subjects. One of the two courses in education was now added to the requirements for this diploma. The field of instruction has continued to broaden and the courses to differentiate, until, in the year 1889-1900 ten different courses are offered, viz.: One in the art and one in the science of teaching; one in school supervision and one in the comparative study of educational systems; one in child study and one in the sociological aspects of education; and four in the various phases of the history of education. The total amount of work offered, given in one semester, now amounts to twenty-four hours.

Besides these courses in education, teachers' courses are

offered in several departments of the university, as Greek, Latin, German, mathematics, history, etc. These courses are of two types, their character being sometimes determined by subject matter alone, but sometimes by the method of presentation together with the subject matter. In the first case, the professor gives merely a course that he thinks the intending teacher should have, properly to qualify him to teach the subject; in the second case, the professor also seeks to present, or at least to illustrate, the method of teaching the subject in the school, commonly dwelling more or less upon the peculiar difficulties that it presents.¹

This somewhat extended account of what has been accomplished at the University of Michigan will not be thought out of place, when it is remembered that the example thus set has proved to be stimulating to other institutions of learning. The same original causes that acted in Michigan have also acted in other states. Since 1879 numerous chairs of education have been established in colleges and universities, and additional chairs are being founded every year. Education has come to be recognized as a fit, if not, indeed, a necessary subject of college and university instruction. Along this line of educational development the state universities of the northwestern and western states have been the pioneers, owing in great part to the fact that these universities are organic parts of state school systems, and in part to the fact that these sections of the country take kindly to new educational ideas.

The courses offered by these chairs or departments of education are purely elective; they count towards the student's degree the same as courses in philosophy, history, or political economy. The theory is that courses in education are just as informing and disciplinary to the student as courses

¹Contributions to the science of education. By William H. Payne, New York, 1886. Chap. XV, "Education as a university study," and Appendix, "The Study of education in the university of Michigan." "Study of education at the university of Michigan," B. A. Hinsdale, in *The Educational review*, vol. VI.

in cognate subjects. Not unfrequently, the institution gives a teacher's diploma to the student who complies with certain requirements. At the University of Michigan these requirements are the following: A university degree, eleven hours of work in the department of the science and the art of teaching, and a teacher's course in some other department of the university. Not unfrequently, too, this diploma, either directly or indirectly, is legally valid as a certificate to teach in the public schools of the state.

At different institutions the pedagogical work, while conforming to a common type, has naturally been developed in somewhat different directions. What is more, the services of a single professor have not always proved to be sufficient to do all the work that is called for; but this phase of the subject may perhaps be treated to better advantage under the next division of the general subject.

VII TEACHERS' COLLEGES

Three hundred years ago Richard Mulcaster, master of Merchant tailors' school, London, proposed a teachers' college as a department of a university. "I conclude, therefore," he said, "that this trade requireth a particular college, for these four causes. First, for the subject, being the mean to make or mar the whole fry of our state. Secondly, for the number, whether of them that are to learn, or of them that are to teach. Thirdly, for the necessity of the profession, which may not be spared. Fourthly, for the matter of their study, which is comparable to the greatest possessions, for language, for judgment, for skill how to train, for variety in all points of learning, wherein the framing of the mind and the exercising of the body craveth exquisite consideration, besides the staidness of the person."¹ This good seed, however, fell into barren soil. Prof. S. S. Laurie renewed the suggestion in a somewhat different form in the address that he delivered in 1876 on assuming the duties of the

¹ Positions wherein those primitive circumstances be examined which are necessary for the training of children, etc. London, 1851, chap. xli.

chair of the theory, history, and art of education in the University of Edinburgh. Vindicating the establishment of this chair, he said : " It makes it possible to institute for the first time in our universities a faculty of education, just as we may be said already to have a faculty of law, theology and of engineering." ¹ No foreign country has yet taken steps in this direction, and it has been left to the United States first to realize the suggestion of a faculty of education, or, more accurately perhaps, of a college for teachers.

Instruction in the science and the art of teaching was included in the university scheme that was proposed for Columbia college in 1858, but then without avail. Again, President Barnard urged the same plan, which he now worked out much more fully, upon the trustees of the same college in 1881 and 1882. The next step forward was the organization in New York city, in 1888, of Teachers college, which was chartered the following year. While this college was organized outside of the Columbia system, it was still under the control, in great part, of Columbia men, and was loosely affiliated with the college. The last step in the evolution came in 1898, when Teachers college was made an integral part of the educational system of Columbia university.² The president of Columbia is president also of the college, and the university professors of philosophy and education and of psychology are members of its faculty, while the college is represented in the university council by its dean and an elected representative. The college, however, continues its own separate organization, having its own independent board of trustees, which is charged with the sole financial responsibility of its management.

Teachers college is the professional school of Columbia university for the study of education and the training of teachers, ranking with the schools of law, medicine, and

¹ The Training of teachers, etc., London, 1882. See inaugural address delivered on the occasion of the founding of the chair of the institutes and history of education in the University of Edinburgh, S. S. Laurie.

² See an Article " The Beginnings of Teachers College," by Dr. Nicholas Murray Butler, in *Columbia university quarterly*, September, 1899.

applied science. The university accepts courses in education as part of the requirement for the degrees of A. B., A. M., and Ph. D. ; while graduate students who prefer to devote their entire time to professional study may become candidates for the higher diploma of the college. The college diploma is conferred upon students who have successfully completed some one of the general courses, and a departmental diploma upon those who have fitted themselves for particular branches of school work. Undergraduate students of Columbia and Barnard colleges may, if they desire, obtain the diploma of Teachers college at the same time that they receive the degree of bachelor of arts. The Horace Mann school, fully equipped with kindergarten, elementary, and secondary classes, is maintained by Teachers college as a school of observation and practice.

These are the undergraduate courses : Secondary course leading to the degree of A. B. and the college diploma ; general course leading to the college diploma in elementary teaching ; general course leading to the college diploma in kindergarten teaching. Then there are several courses leading to the college diploma in art, domestic art, domestic science, and manual training. Candidates for the first of these courses must be either college graduates or candidates for the degree of A. B. in Columbia university. There is a combined course of study prescribed for the degree of A. B. in Columbia university and the diploma of Teachers college ; but particulars must here be omitted. Graduate work is also well developed. For the year 1898-99 the teaching staff counted more than sixty persons.

New York university school of pedagogy, established in 1890, aims to furnish graduate work equal in range to other professional schools. The school is an organic part of the university, having its own dean and faculty. More definitely, its aim is declared to be to furnish thorough and complete professional training for teachers. The plan of the school places it upon the same basis as that of the best schools of law, medicine, and theology. The work is of distinctively

university grade, and graduates of colleges and normal schools, and others of equal experience and maturity, may find in this school opportunity for the thorough study of higher pedagogy. In 1898-9, the instruction was distributed in four major and eight minor courses, viz.: History of education; physiological and experimental psychology; analytical psychology; history of philosophy; physiological pedagogics; elements of pedagogy; comparative study of national school systems; æsthetics in relation to education; sociology in relation to education; institutes of pedagogy; ethics, school organization, management, and administration. Special facilities for research are offered in the seminaries. The degree of master of pedagogy is conferred upon candidates who have completed five of the foregoing courses, three of them majors; the degree of doctor of pedagogy, upon candidates who have completed the four major and five of the minor courses. The school does not attempt undergraduate work. There is no practice teaching, but opportunity is given for the critical observation of selected schools. The staff includes ten persons.

Clark university, opened in 1889, has given much attention to education from the first, and the subject has now been made a sub-department in the department of psychology, in which a minor may be taken for the degree of doctor of philosophy. The work is intended to meet the needs of those intending to teach some other specialty than education but who wish a general survey of the history, present state, methods, and recent advances in the field of university, professional, and technical education, and of those who desire to become professors of pedagogy, or heads of instruction in normal schools, superintendents, or to become professional experts in the work of education. The program for the year 1899 included (1) child study, educational psychology, and school hygiene; (2) principles of education, history of education and reforms, methods, devices, apparatus, etc.; (3) organization of schools in different countries, typical schools and special foundations, motor

education, including manual training, physical education, etc., moral education, and ideals. Great stress is placed on original investigation. The president, Dr. G. Stanley Hall, has been from the first the leader of the child study movement in the United States. "The Pedagogical Seminary," edited by him, is the organ of the educational department of the university. It is an international record of educational research and literature, institutions and progress, and is devoted to the highest interests of education of all grades. One of its most valuable features is its digests of meritorious contributions to educational literature.

The department of pedagogy in the University of Chicago has as its primary aim to train competent specialists for the broad and scientific treatment of educational problems. The courses fall under three heads: Psychology and related work, educational theory, and the best methods of teaching the various branches. Stress is laid upon the relation of pedagogy to other subjects, and courses are offered in the proper departments in which the methodology of such subjects is employed. For the year 1898-99 such courses were offered in history, sociology, and anthropology, in the English, German, and Latin languages and literatures, in mathematics, and in geology. The courses in educational theory are preceded by the introductory courses in psychology, ethics, and logic, given in the department of philosophy.

The University of Chicago has also established a college for teachers on a somewhat novel plan. This institution, which was founded in October, 1898, is an outgrowth of the class study department of the extension division of the university. It is a "downtown" college, and aims to provide instruction of high grade for busy people; or, more definitely, "for any and all persons qualified to do the work; who are so engaged by other imperative duties as to make continuous attendance at the other colleges of the university impracticable."¹ The work of the new college is of the same

¹ "The University of Chicago College for Teachers," in *University record*, vol. III, No. 31.

grade as that of the other colleges of the university. Students may take much or little, according to their ability and wishes, but when the requirements have been met, the work is crowned with a degree. The school aims at scientific, cultural, and disciplinary results. It distinctly denies that it is in any sense a normal school. Moreover, while it is not exclusively a teachers' school, the college, nevertheless, emphasizes instruction suitable to the special needs of teachers sufficiently to justify its name. The distinctively pedagogical teaching, like all the teaching, looks to knowledge and scientific training rather than to practical applications. At the close of its first year of life the outlook is an encouraging one.

The University of Wisconsin school of education is an expansion of the former department of education. The four main lines of instruction are the history, the philosophy, the science, and the practice of education. The school aims to afford practical and healthful instruction to intending teachers, professors, principals, and superintendents, and to those students who desire to pursue studies and investigations in the science of education.

A wealthy and public-spirited lady of Chicago, Mrs. Emmons Blaine, has declared her purpose to establish and endow a teachers' college of high grade in that city, and the initial steps have already been taken to carry out her plan.

The institution will be under the direction of Francis W. Parker, formerly of the Chicago Normal School.

Besides the agencies for the training and cultivation of teachers that have been enumerated, there are still others that may be described collectively as miscellaneous in their character. Particular reference may be made to the numerous associations, societies, institutes, and clubs for teachers of various degree that overspread the land. No other country in the world, it is probable, is so well furnished with these purely voluntary means of education. They contribute not a little to the knowledge and cultivation of

teachers as well as to the elevation of educational ideals and the formation of popular opinion. Then there are the teachers' libraries, local and general. The organization of such libraries has sometimes been carried to such perfection that books of both a special and a general character are practically sent to the teacher's own door. New York, for instance, provides at state cost for the necessary expenses of a state school library for the benefit and free use of the teachers of the state, to be circulated under such rules and regulations as the state superintendent may establish. This law puts at the use of the teachers of the state an excellent collection of books on the simple and easy condition that they shall pay the postage on their return to the state capital.

The certification or licensing of teachers in the public schools of the United States may almost be called a burning question. To protect the schools or the public against unworthy persons without burdening deserving teachers, is the problem to be solved. Much of the difficulty attending the solution of the problem arises from the highly complex form of the American government, and the emphasis that is everywhere placed upon local as opposed to central authority. Education is a state, not a national function; moreover, the states, in accordance with the popular genius, vest this power primarily in local authorities, sometimes town or city boards, but more frequently county boards of examiners. In recent years many of the states have set up state examining boards, empowered to issue state certificates valid either for life or for a term of years. None of the states, however, have abandoned the earlier local boards, which still examine the great majority of school teachers. In Massachusetts, which is one of the states that have never adopted the new plan, there are three hundred and thirty-three boards authorized to grant certificates, not one of which, however, is legally valid beyond the town or city in which it is issued. Many teachers, and these generally the best teachers, naturally look upon the existing system as being unreasonable and burdensome, and insist that a wider validity shall be given

to their certificates when they have once proved their ability to teach. Sometimes the evils of the system are mitigated and the system so rendered less intolerable through the legal or practical recognition of the principle of comity, whereby the attestation of one examining authority is accepted by other such authorities. Still no satisfactory solution has yet been reached.

At a meeting of college and university professors of education held in Washington, D. C., in July, 1898, a committee was appointed to investigate and report upon the certification of college and university graduates as teachers in the public schools. This committee has finished its work and published its report, which consists, in part, of an exposition of the existing laws and usages so far as the certification of such graduates is concerned, and in part of the recommendations of the committee. It will be germane to the subject of this monograph to include in it the salient features of this report.

The committee declares unqualifiedly in favor of the states' making special legal provision for certificating college and university graduates in the public schools, whereby they shall be exempted, as far as may prove to be consistent with the best interests of the schools, from the ordinary examinations. This exemption should be made only in the cases of graduates who have complied substantially with the following requirements:

(1) The graduate shall have received a good college education terminating in a bachelor's degree. (2) He must, also, have pursued a limited number of studies, not more than two or three, of a congruous nature with more than ordinary thoroughness—that is, have had a degree of specialization. (3) His certificate should not cover all the studies of the high school course, but only those to which he has devoted special attention, as just explained. (4) The next condition is that the graduate shall have pursued, in the college or university, or in some school having college or university affiliations, the study of education. (5) He

should also take one or more teachers' courses in the branches of knowledge which he has studied most thoroughly, such courses to include not merely the academical elements of the subject, but also its pedagogical elements. (6) The committee also recommend that the candidate shall, if possible, have had some instruction in the school of observation or practice. The final conclusion is that the college or university graduate who has fulfilled these conditions and who has good health, good morals, and good personal cultivation should, without examination external to the college or university, be certificated to teach for a period of at least three years; and if at the close of this probationary term he has shown himself to be a successful teacher, then he should be certificated for life, provided he expects to continue in the work. In the case of graduate students the committee urges that they also should be certificated without formal examination if they make education either a major or minor study and also take one or more teachers' courses as in the case of the ordinary graduate.

Perhaps the most important paragraph of the report relates to the study of education, and may be thus summarized: This study should be elective, and should count towards a student's degree as other elective work counts; education, as a study, is just as informing and disciplinary as history, philosophy, sociology, or politics; the minimum to be required should be about twelve hours a week for one semester. It should begin in the second semester of the junior year, or not later than the first semester of the senior year, and continue to the end of the course. Part of the work should be prescribed and part elective; the prescribed work to include one scientific and one practical course. The scientific course should be built up on the basis of some knowledge of physiology, psychology, logic, ethics, æsthetics, and sociology, and should present an outline view of the facts and principles of education; the practical course should embrace general methodology, some leading special methodologies, as the language-arts, history, science, school

hygiene, school practice, and management, the common facts of school law, the general features of an American state school system, etc. The electives would naturally be made from a group of subsidiary courses bearing some of the following titles: The history of education in its various phases; a comparative study of educational systems; study of children; the sociological relations of education; the relations of pedagogy to other sciences and arts; school superintendence; the history of school studies and their value as educational instruments, etc. The particular election or elections would depend on the student, his preparation and his plans for the future.¹

At present this is an ideal scheme, although most of its features are met with in different institutions; but it does not seem extravagant to expect that it will influence future practice. It may be added that the committee thinks that the realization of inter-state comity on a large scale must depend upon the improvement and elevation of existing standards.

It is not altogether easy to conceive the enormous growth that education has made in the United States since the beginning of the educational revival. Unfortunately, we have no statistics that exhibit it on a national scale. We shall, however, close the century with an annual common school expenditure of more than \$212,000,000, with more than 426,000 teachers, and with more than 15,500,000 pupils in the schools. There is no question as to the greatest defect of this education. We must accept in good spirit the judgment of the German critic, Dr. E. Schlee, delivered the year of the Columbian exposition.² "If in every office the chief factor is the man, and in school the teacher, we have come to the weakest point in the American school system—professional teachers are wanting. That is to say, most teachers are deficient in the requisite scientific and pedagogical preparation for their vocation." But it must be remembered that this great system is the work of but sixty

¹ The report is found in the *School review*, Chicago, June, 1899.

² Report of commissioner of education, 1892-93. Part II, chap. III.

years. It has been impossible to train teachers as fast as the schools required them; the need has constantly outrun the public ability, and still more, perhaps, the public ideals. Under the circumstances, no people could have made the supply equal the demand. Still, much has been done to prepare teachers for their work, if not as much as should have been done. The agencies that have been employed, and are still employed, are of a miscellaneous character, evincing plainly enough the versatility, not to say shiftiness, of the American mind. The system is marked perhaps by what John Stuart Mill once called "the fatal belief" of the American public "that anybody is fit for anything." The national inventiveness appears particularly in the efforts that have been made to supply the deficiencies of non-professional teachers. The success that has attended these efforts has tended to produce satisfaction with mere temporary expedients. Necessity has been the mother of inventions that continued after the necessity had ceased. The fundamental lack is education — solid, sound, thorough education. Of agencies that minister to discursive culture, we have more than enough. Still, what is said above of teachers' institutes may be said of these agencies taken together — they have done far more good than evil.

Our system undoubtedly appears very imperfect and inadequate to foreign critics who are acquainted with the more highly organized systems of France and Germany; but it is not invidious to say that such critics are not always well prepared to appreciate all the features of our civilization. In the present instance, they may safely accept our assurance that, however impossible our system might be in continental countries, in America it works much better than they can readily conceive. This is not said to conceal defects, which are freely admitted, but only to secure recognition for undeniable merits. Whether new features will be added to the system, or whether old ones will be lopped away, are questions that the future must answer. For the present, it is reassuring to know that the conviction is constantly gaining

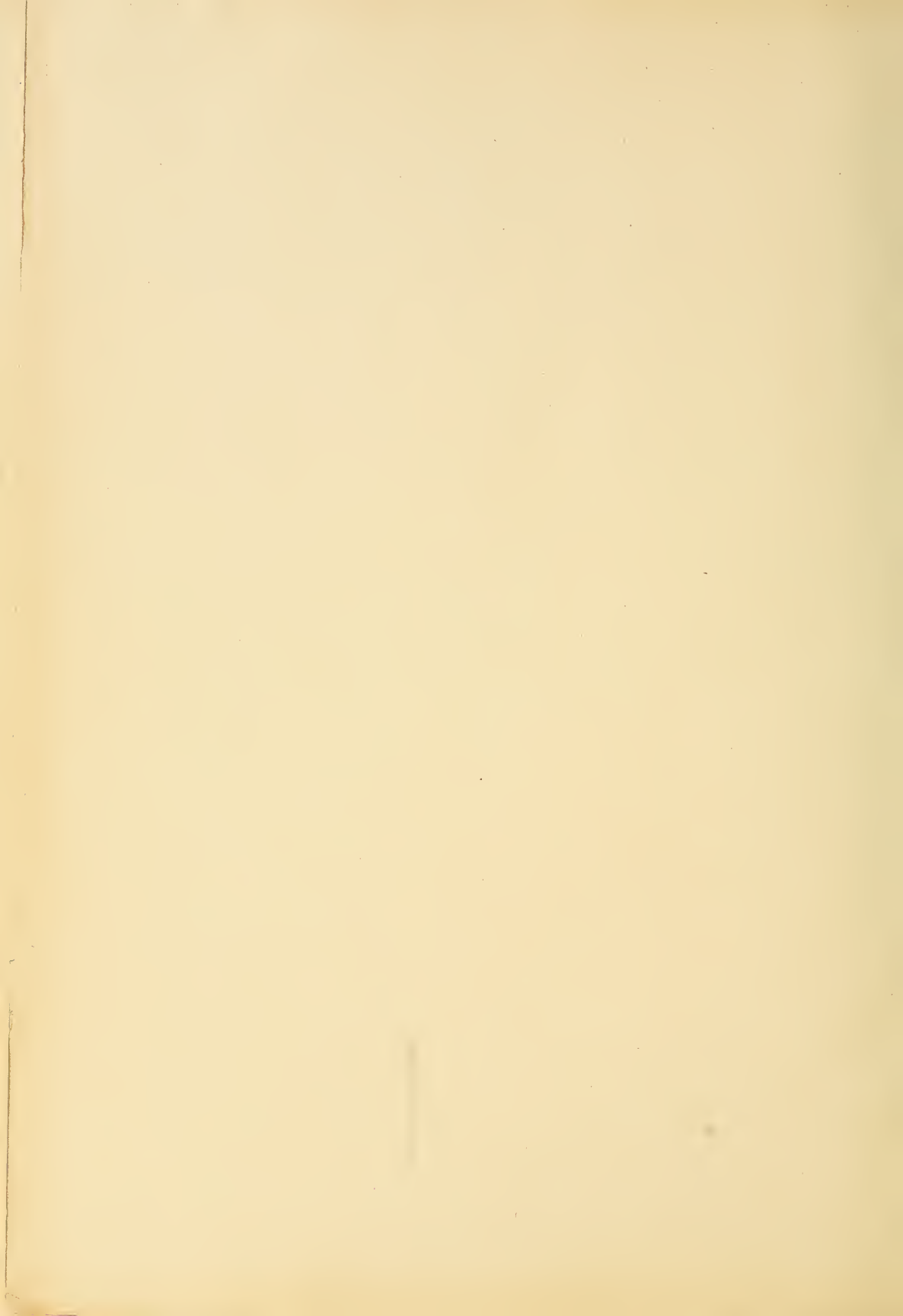
ground that, whatever is done at its circumference, the system must be strengthened at its center. The most competent judges will not dissent from the proposition, that the brightest promise of the future is seen in the work, present and prospective, of the colleges and universities of the country.

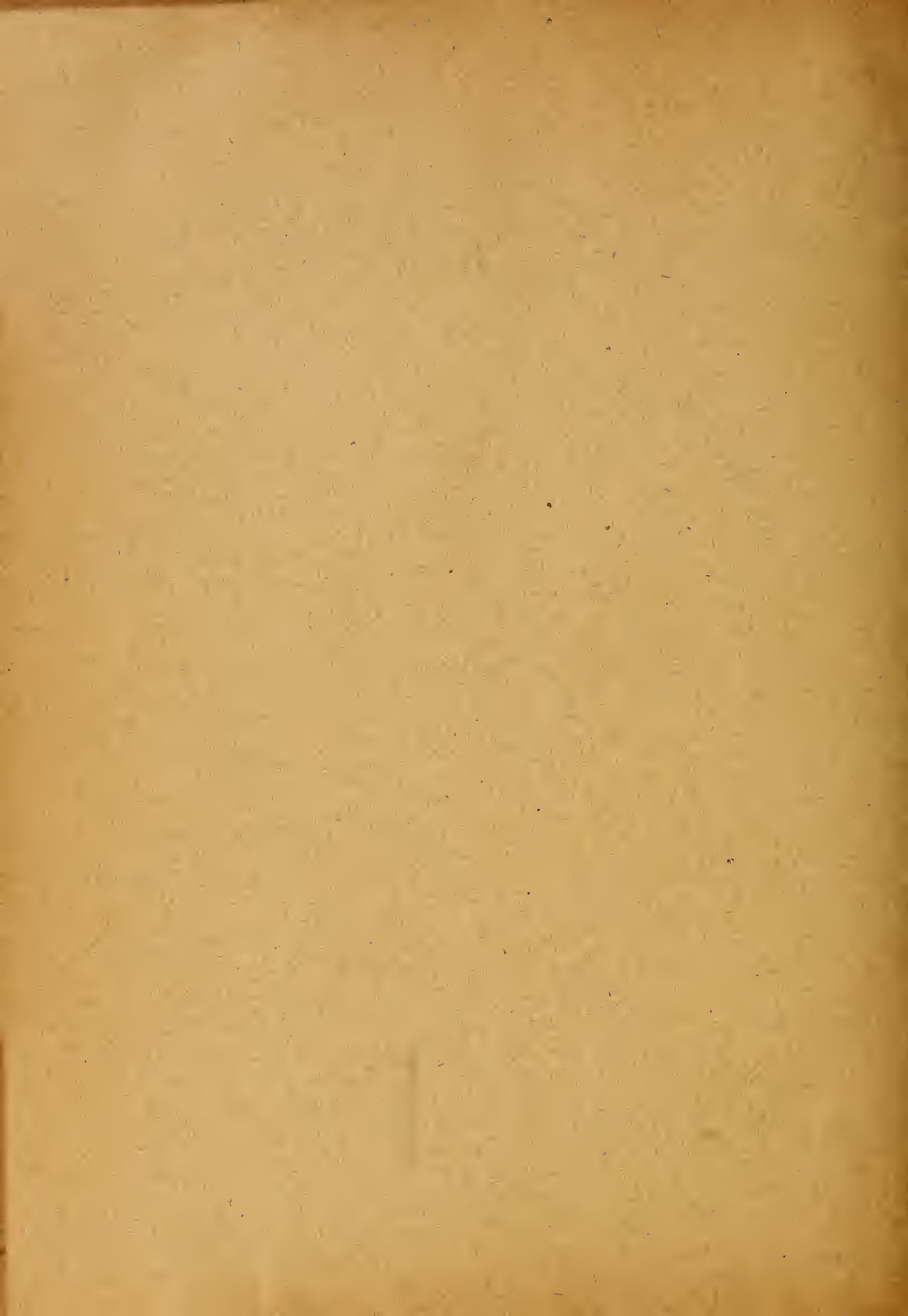
At the close of this monograph, it may not be amiss to remark that it presents only a general survey of its subject. All classes of institutions that deserve recognition have, it is believed, been characterized; but the characterizations have necessarily been brief. In selecting the institutions that have been specifically named, the sole purpose has been to select those that are typical of their classes. The further observation may be added that, of the 436 universities and colleges reporting to the commissioner of education technical, professional, and special courses of study for the year 1896-97, 220 reported courses in pedagogy.

Additional authorities — An historical account of the State Normal College at Albany, N. Y., etc.; Circular of the New York State Normal College, Albany, 1899; Columbia University in the city of New York, Teachers college, announcements, 1898-99, and 1899-1900, and President's Report, 1898-99; Columbia University in the city of New York, Division of Philosophy and Psychology, announcement, 1898-99; New York University, School of Pedagogy, announcements for the tenth year, beginning Sept. 27, 1899, etc.; The School of Pedagogy, New York University, its aims and opportunities to pupils; Manual of the Normal College of the city of New York 1897; Twenty-eighth annual report of the Normal College of New York, for the year ending December 30, 1898, etc.; Courses of study and rules for the government of training school for teachers, Brooklyn, N. Y., 1897; John Fulton, *Memoirs of Frederick A. P. Barnard*, etc., New York, 1896, chap. XVII; Martha's Vineyard Summer Institute, 1899, Twenty-second annual session; Clark University, etc., Register and eleventh official announcement, 1899; University of Wisconsin,

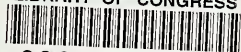
announcement, of summer session for 1899; same, Bulletin No. 29, etc., 1899-1900; Historical sketch of the State university of Iowa, J. L. Pickard, etc., 1899; Catalogue of the Peabody normal college for the year 1898-99.







LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 028 069 888 A